

INFINITIVE AND GERUND

AS A MEANS

OF ABBREVIATING SUBSTANTIVE SENTENCES IN THE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE.



INAUGURAL DISSERTATION

FOR THE ATTAINMENT OF THE DEGREES

OF

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY AND MASTER OF ARTS

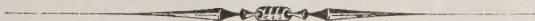
AT THE

UNIVERSITY OF ROSTOCK.

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LÜNEBURG.

PRINTED BY VON STERN.

1875.



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The sentences which we are to speak of in treating of our theme are the substantive sentences in as much as they permit of being abbreviated by the infinitive or the gerund. For the sake of clearness we dispose our treatise according to the classification common to grammarians when speaking of substantive sentences; for in following this order the striking points of view will be made conspicuous and the discussion of them follow in the simplest and most natural way. Before speaking however of the essential cases concerned here we shall define the notion and mention the different kinds of the substantive sentence.

We call substantive sentences all those accessory sentences which serve to circumscribe a substantive of the governing sentence, which may itself be a principal or an accessory one, no matter if the substantive notion expressed by the subordinate clause is the subject, the predicate or the object of the governing sentence. The substantive sentences are therefore opposed to adverbial and attributive sentences, which replace an adverbial or an attributive enlargement of the principal sentence. With regard to their logical nature we may distinguish two kinds of substantive sentences: concrete and abstract ones. The former serve to express the notion of a person or a thing, the latter of an activity or a state. Touching their grammatical relation all substantive sentences may be either:

- 1) subjective sentences, if they replace a substantive in the nominative case and serve as a subject of the governing sentence; or

- 2) predicative sentences, if they are used instead of a predicative substantive; or
- 3) objective sentences, if they take the place of a substantive in dependency of a member of the governing sentence. — The substantive replaced by the objective sentence may be regarded as a genitive or as an accusative, and in this case it is said to be in direct dependency, or it may depend on a preposition and then it stands in indirect dependency.

In order to give a greater elegance and vigour to the language substantive sentences are often abbreviated. For this purpose the English language has recourse to the infinitive or the gerund, and as these forms of the verb express the various relations of time and mood in the most general way, it is evident that they are best fit to be employed for the sake of giving brevity and variety to the expression.

The infinitive of a subordinate sentence depends in two respects on the principal sentence: firstly with respect to its *subject*, and secondly with respect to *time*. Its subject — for the infinitive participates in the nature of the verb and cannot be without a subject — depends on a member of the principal sentence or is to be understood, and as to time it is to be remarked that, as the infinitive expresses an activity in an abstract manner without any reference to time, it is the predicative verb of the governing sentences which determines also the sphere of time to which the activity of the infinitive belongs.

But not all substantive sentences admit of an abbreviation. Generally speaking we may say that an abbreviation is only permitted either if the subject of the abbreviated sentence is the subject or the object of the governing sentence, or if the subject of the abbreviated sentence is easily to be supplied from the context; for it must always be the ruling principle of grammatical construction to give clearness to the speech. This must be borne in mind, when we find that in one and the same complexed sentence, elliptical accessory sentences are often intermingled with such as are not abbreviated, be it in order to avoid monotony or that the second accessory sentence contains too great a number of adverbial complements which it would not be clever to comprise in an elliptical clause.

- f. i. The learned is happy nature to explore;
The fool is happy that he knows no more.

Pope, Essay on Man. 2. 263.

It had been better for us to serve the Egyptians than that we should die in the wilderness.

2. Mos. 14. 12.

We shall now examine the different kinds of substantive sentences in as much as they permit of an abbreviation.

1. THE SUBJECTIVE SENTENCE.

A. General rule. The subjective sentence cannot be abbreviated if its subject, though expressed and determined in the accessory clause, is not pointed out in the governing sentence.

- f. i. It is a fact, that all men must die.

It was no wonder, that to this set belonged Sir Lionel Garrett.
Bulwer, Pelham I.

An abbreviation may however take place,

a) if the subject of the subjective sentence is the subject or an oblique case of the governing clause;

- f. i. Is it possible for you to place any confidence in men, who —

Letters of Junius 1769.

b) if the subjective sentence has no determined subject, but a general one, which is to be supplied by adding »one«, »they«, »you«, »people« etc., or to be seen from the context.

- f. i. It were best not call.

Shakespeare, Cymbeline 3. 6.

B. Particular cases of abbreviation

- 1) In the first place the *simple infinitive* is used to abbreviate subjective sentences. For the most part this infinitive refers to an impersonal sentence introduced by the impersonal pronoun *it*.

a) *It* is found in the governing sentence.

- f. i. Will't please you, hear me.

Sh.: Ant. and Cleop. 2. 5.

May it please your highness sit.

Macbeth 3. 4.

- b) Without *it* in the governing sentence.

f. i. Me lists not tell what words were made.

Scott, Last Minstrel 5. 25.

Him booteth not resist.

Spenser, Faery Queen 1. 3. 20.

c) Sometimes this infinitive occurs after an impersonal sentence with a predicative adjective: best, better, good.

f. i. 'tis best put finger in the eye.

Taming of the Shrew 1. 1.

d) This predicative adjective stands even elliptically.

f. i. Best draw my sword.

Cymbeline 3. 6.

In the passages sub a, b, c, d the infinitive represents the logical subject pointed out by the grammatical subject *it* in the preceding sentence. I regard all these infinitives as abbreviated subjective sentences, because they have for the most part an object as their complement or, if this is not the case as in: »him booteth not resist«, the object is easily to be supplied from the context. As to the verb *resist* it is used here with relation to an object. It is not spoken of the action of resisting in general and with regard to the abstract notion of the verb, but of the resisting of a definite person to a definite person or thing, as for instance in those cases when the infinitive appears as the substantivated subject of the sentence; here the point of view is quite different.

f. i. Have is have.

King John I. 1.

Mother, what does marry mean?

Longfellow I. 132.

In cases in which the predicative adjectives *good*, *better*, *best* are used elliptically, I think it more appropriate*) to regard them as an ellipsis of the impersonal sentence »it were better, best, good, than as an ellipsis of the personal construction with to be or to have (I, you were better, I, you had better, etc.). — As to the quotation from *Macbeth* 3. 2, which Mr. Mätzner gives, »better be with the dead etc.« it seems to me quite necessary to refer the elliptical »better« to an impersonal sentence: »it were better«. The passage alluded to runs thus:

*) See Mätzner, Engl. Grammatik. II. 2.

„But let the frame of things disjoint, both the worlds suffer,
 Ere we will eat our meal in fear or sleep
 In the affliction of these terrible dreams,
 That shake us nightly: *better be with the dead,*
 Whom we to gain our place, have sent to peace,
 Than on the torture of the mind to lie
 In restless ecstasy.“

The infinitive *to lie* in the comparative sentence does not permit of being completed by *we had*, as it is a prepositional one. To supply here the present tense *we have* is not appropriate either; for in this case it would be necessary to take the infinitive *to lie* in a conditional sense (if we lie). This is not good, because Macbeth speaks of *the fact* of his being tortured by the fear of some coming danger. On the other hand if we refer the elliptical *better* to a personal sentence, such as *we were better* — it would be necessary to supply *we are* or *we were* after »than«, in which case the infinitive *to lie* would also have a conditional sense though a fact is mentioned.

In the language of our days it is more common to use the prepositional instead of the simple infinitive in all those cases which we have enumerated.

f. i. It had always been customary in the East to give and receive presents.

Macaulay Essays, Clive p. 47.

But the infinitive with the preposition *to* is also found in the earlier periods of the language and even the Anglo-Saxon furnishes examples of the promiscuous use of the simple and prepositional infinitive.

We find passages as:

It behovethe men to bere vitaille with hem.

Sir John Maundeville p. 58.

together with: Of him I gathered honour, which he to seek of me again, perforce, behoves me keep at utterance.

Cymbeline 3. 1.

Anglo-Saxon:

Me gethuhte writan the.

St. Luke 1. 3.

and:

Eáthere ys olfende to farene thurh naedle thyrel, thonne se rica and se welega on godes rice gâ.

St. Marc. 10. 25.

- 2) The prepositional infinitive is used as a means of abbreviating subjective sentences; like the simple infinitive it refers mostly to an impersonal governing sentence.

f. i. 'Tis pleasant, sure, to see one's name in print.

Byron p. 312.

'Tis yours to judge how wide the limits stand
Between a splendid and a happy land.

Goldsmith, Deserted Village 267.

It first entered into my head to return home.

Fielding, man of the hill.

It is ful fair to ben yclept Madame.

Chaucer, Cant. Tales, Prologue 376.

In Old-English this prepositional infinitive occurs frequently with an accusative, which serves as the logical subject to which the activity of the infinitive is to be referred. The modern language however does no more permit of this construction.

f. i. No wonder is a lewid man to ruste.

Cant. Tales, Prol. 502.

It is not good to be a man aloone.

Chaucer.

If that it be a foul thing a man to waste his catel
on wommen.

Chaucer.

This infinitive with the preposition *to* is to be regarded as an accusativus cum infinitivo, which is rarely to be found in Anglo-Saxon, but which corresponds to the Gothic and Greek construction of the infinitive.

It would be impossible to regard the case which is used with the infinitive as the nominative, though it is clear that, if we take it for an accusative, it cannot depend on the principal sentence as it ought to do. We must therefore look for another means of explaining this rather strange construction. Let us take a passage from the Bible and compare the different translations in Gothic, Old-English and Anglo-Saxon. As to modern English we have already mentioned that a similar construction is no more found.

We find in the gospel of St. John 18. 14 the following Greek original text:

ἦν δὲ Καϊάφας ὁ συμβουλευσας τοῖς Ἰουδαίοις ὅτι συμφέρει
ἔνα ἄνθρωπον ἀπολέσθαι ὑπὲρ τοῦ λαοῦ.

The accusativus cum infinitivo „ἐνα ἄνθρωπον ἀπολέσθαι“ depends on the impersonal verb „συνμύξει“. It is the same in the Gothic translation of Ulfilas and in the Old-English of Wycliffe.

Gothic: Vasuh thau Kajafa, saei garaginodo Judaium thatai batizo
ist *ainana mannan fraquistjan* faur managein.

Old-English: Sothely it was Cayphas that gaue counsyl to the Jewis,
that it spedith *one man for to die* for the puble.

Anglo-Saxon: pät hit betere väre pät *än man svulte* for folce.

We see that the Gothic and Old-English translators following the Greek original used the accusative with the infinitive whilst the Anglo-Saxon preferred the subjective sentence with the conjunction *thät*. Another passage is Luke 16. 17 where the Anglo-Saxon has also the subjective sentence, whilst the Gothic preserves the accusative with the infinitive of the Greek.

Anglo-Saxon: Eáthre ys pät heofon and eorthe geviton.

Gothic: Ith azetizo ist hinim jah airtha hindarleithan.

How are we to account for this accusative, which has no real governing verb on which it might depend? We must have recourse to the Greek. In the Greek language we meet with an accusative which is employed almost adverbially and which expresses, without indicating how, the general relation of the verb or of the adjective in which they are to be taken. This accusative corresponds therefore to the locution, »with regard to« etc. (cf. also the Accusativus graecus in the poetical Latin language)

f. i. παρθένος καλὴ τὸ εἶδος.

Homer.

that is: a girl beautiful with regard to figure. This general relation is in Latin expressed by the ablative case: *puella facie pulchra*.

ῥύματα καὶ κεφαλὴν ἔκελος Διὶ τερπικεράνῳ.

Homer.

that is: equalling thunder-enjoying Jupiter with regard to eyes and head.

By extension this accusative was also used in a still more licentious way to express the relation in which an impersonal verb is to be taken. Thus it served to form with the infinitive a construction similar to the real accusativus cum infinitivo:

f. i. ἐλπίς ἐστι πάντα καλῶς ἔχειν, meaning, there is hope, with regard to everything, that it is well; that is to say: it is to be hoped that all is well.

The accusative *πάντα* is the logical subject of the infinitive *ἔχειν*.

The accusative with the infinitive as a subject in the Old-English language is therefore of a quite different nature as that which serves as the object of a sentence and which we shall speak of afterwards.

- 3) In the third place the infinitive with *for to* is sometimes used to abbreviate a subjective sentence.

f. i. therefore 't is good and meet for to be wise.

Marlow.

This use of *for to* with the infinitive is wholly antiquated. The preposition *for* served originally to denote a purpose, a design:

f. i. For swa to winnenn blisse.

Ormulum 896.

But afterwards the original meaning was no more felt and *for to* served like the simple *to* to express the grammatical dependency of the infinitive mood.

- 4) To replace a logical or grammatical subject the English makes also use of the gerund and in this case it is to be regarded as an abbreviated subjective sentence.

'Tis better using France, than trusting France.

Shakesp. Henry VI. III. 4. 1.

Your being Sir Anthony's son, captain, would itself be a sufficient accommodation.

Sheridan, Riv. 3. 3.

There's no reasoning them out of their dotage.

Irving, Dolph. Heyliger.

In the first example the infinitive might be as well employed instead of the gerund. This promiscuous use may be explained by the origin of the gerund. The Anglo-Saxon prepositional infinitive terminating in *anne* degenerated into a form in *ende* and coincided in form with the participle present of the active voice. *) In the later stages of the Anglo-Saxon language even the termination *ing* is sometimes found in the infinitive. It was but natural that this infinitive form in *ing*, which was accompanied by the preposition *to*, was confounded with the verbal substantive in *ung*, which in the earlier stages of the Anglo-Saxon language had already a form in *ing* and which therefore began to admit of a verbal government and to be treated like an infinitive in *ing*. In the different manuscripts of the Saxon Chronicle we find:

*) See Koch, hist. Gram. d. Engl. Sprache. II. 67.

He sende to bodianne }
 He sende to bodiende } 604.
 Hi comen christ to wurthiende. 2.
 He sohte flaeinde.

Lajamon 5561.

The Kyrke he thrette forto brennyng.

Pet. Langtoftes Chron. 1028.

In purchasyng his substynauce 5.

Maundeville.

In schavinge our berdes. 2. *ibid.*

There is no denying it.

Oliv. Twist 24.

The gerund may therefore be regarded as an amalgamation of the verbal substantive with the prepositional infinitive, and hence it is not to be wondered at that in the modern language the infinitive should often be replaced by the gerund, and vice versa.

f. i. To give gold to you is giving fuel to him.

Scott, Kenilworth 15.

It avails not speaking of him. *ibid.* 22.

It avails not to deny. *ibid.* 22.

To edge his way along the crowded paths of life, *warning* all human sympathy to keep its distance, was what the knowing ones call »nuts« to Scrooge.

Dickens, Christm. Carol. I. p. 3.

To regard *warning* in the last example as a participle and to refer it to the subject of the infinitive *to edge* (Scrooge) in the sense of *by warning* is from obvious reasons impossible; for the *warning* is the result of the action of edging. We might however take it as a participle in the sense of »warning by it«. But the circumstance that the poet has already mentioned that nobody liked Scrooge, and the words which immediately preceded our sentence: »But what did Scrooge care« make it probable that we have to take it as a gerund in the consecutive sense of: *and so to warn*, and the two sentences as coordinate subjective sentences.

II. PREDICATIVE SENTENCES.

The simple infinitive is not used to abbreviate predicative sentences, for in cases in which it serves as a predicate this infinitive

is a real substantive, as it is employed with regard to its full abstract notion. — In the same manner also the prepositional infinitive is used as a real abstract substantive.

- 1) The prepositional infinitive occurs however also to mark an abbreviated substantive sentence, which stands instead of a predicative substantive and which we may therefore call a predicative sentence.

- a) This is especially the case with explicative sentences

f. i. Avarice is to withhold and kepe suche thinges as thou hast, without rightful neede.

Chaucer, Cant Tales p. 202. I.

The infinitives »to withhold« and »kepe« are not to be regarded as real substantives,

α) because they are not used with regard to their whole abstract notion;

β) because they retain their verbal government.

- b) From the same reasons the infinitive after verbs as *to seem*, *to appear* may also be called an abbreviated predicative sentence, as it replaces a predicative substance.

f. i. But its (the Knockers) horror seemed to be, in spite of its face and beyond its control, rather than a part of its own expression.

Dickens, Chr. Carol. I, p. 10.

»to be« is to be taken in the sense of »to exist«.

Even the blindman's dog appeared to know him.

Ibid. p. 2.

We must not seem to understand him.

Shakesp. All's well. 4. 1.

But whoso entereth within this town,

That, sheening far, celestial seems to be.

Byron, Childe Harold. I. 17.

- c) We are to mention here also the passive construction of the accusative with the infinitive by which the accusative is made the logical subject of the sentence.

f. i. Till some were heard to curse the shrine where others knelt to heaven.

Th. Moore, Weep on, v. 23.

In the active construction the sentence would run:

«We heard some to curse the shrine etc.»

In the passive voice the logical construction ought to be:

»It was heard by us that some cursed the shrine etc.«, or abbreviated with the accusativus cum infinitivo for the subject:

»It was heard by us some to curse the shrine« etc.

We have spoken of the latter construction in a previous chapter (see page 16) and mentioned that it is now-a-days quite obsolete. In Modern-English the subject of the subordinate sentence is by a kind of prolepsis anticipated and made the subject of the principal verb in the passive voice. Thus the construction becomes a personal one, whilst the infinitive seems to remain in grammatical dependency of the principal verb. We may easily account for this apparently illogical construction, if we regard the infinitive as an abbreviated predicative sentence; for me might parse thus:

»Some were heard as who cursed the shrine« etc.

Consequently the infinitive replaces a predicative complement in the nominative case.

The Latin tongue shows also the personal construction in cases when the accusative with the infinitive is construed in the passive voice; but only a few verbs admitted of it, such as: *dicitur, videtur, jubetur, vetatur*.

Pueri vetantur immodesti esse.

This personal construction occurs very seldom with other verbs:

Haec avis scribitur conchis se solere complere.

Cicero, *Nat. deor.* 2. 49.

Dii beati esse intelliguntur.

Ibid. 1. 38.

But it is more frequent in the Greek language. The passive construction:

ἔλεγετο τὸν Κῦρον νικῆσαι,

is in the personal construction:

ὁ Κῦρος ἔλεγετο νικῆσαι.

It is the same with the following:

ἐνταῦθα λέγεται Ἀπόλλων ἐκδεῖραι Μαρσύαν.

Xenoph. *Anab.* I. 2. 8.

This personal construction is very rarely to be found in the former stages of the language, in Anglo-Saxon and Semi-Saxon. We may therefore ascribe the modern usage principally to the influence of the classic languages.

Anglo-Saxon:

pâ vās heó gesaven mid svâ micle beorhtnisse leóhtes
scēman.

Semi-Saxon:

Nu wes this ilke iscid me to bi-swiken.

Lajam, I. 343.

2) The gerund is used as an abbreviated predicative sentence.

f. i. »But they are dead, those two are dead!

Their spirits are in heaven!«

'Twas *throwing* words away; for still

The little maid would have her will,

And said, »Nay, master, we are seven«.

Wordsworth, we are seven. 17.

III. OBJECTIVE SENTENCES.

A. THE SIMPLE INFINITIVE.

The simple infinitive without the preposition *to* is employed for the sake of abbreviating objective sentences. For an abbreviation of an objective sentence is to be supposed in all those cases in which the infinitive replaces an object.

He began to write-

He began the writing.

She continued to walk-

She continued the walking.

In the contrary we cannot parse »He must go«: He must the going, or »He ought to do«: He ought the doing.

Consequently we need not regard here those infinitives which are employed after the auxiliary verbs or verbs of mood, such as will, shall, must, may, can, dare, need, ought. For they are necessary complements of the verbs, which without them would not have the power of a verb.

a) We have first to mention here *to have* with the predicative adjectives good, better, best, lief, rather, followed by a simple infinitive in the sense of an abbreviated objective sentence.

f. i. I had much rather be myself the slave

And wear the bonds, than fasten them on him.

Cowper, poem on slavery.

You had better leave your folly. .

Marlowe, Faust 2. 4.

We had best return towards the boat.

Bulwer, Rienzi. 1. 1.

I had as lief be none as one.

Shakesp. Rich. II. 5. 2.

I had rather die than see her thus.

Marlowe, Jew of Malta 1. 2.

It is however to be observed that only the imperfect tense of *to have* (in the sense of *to possess*) occurs in this construction and that »had«, being the conjunctive mood, has the conditional sense of »should or would have«. The adjectives *better* etc. are to be regarded as predicative neutres, and the sense of »I had better, as good, as lief etc. is: I should have as something better, as something which is as good, as lief. The following infinitive marks the object which is possessed and stands in opposition to another action expressed by another infinitive to which it is compared.

f. i. I had rather *die*, than see her thus.

It is not difficult to account for the construction with the adverb *rather*, which occurs in the later periods of the language. It seems that *rather* took the place of the comparative degree of lief: *lever*, perhaps because the adjective nature of better, lever was no more felt. They were regarded as forming a single notion with the verb and therefore to be adverbs.

f. i. Fare lever he hadde wende and bidde us mete.

Rob. of Gloust. Chron. 1. 37.

b) to bid in the sense of »to command« and »to entreat« is construed with the simple infinitive. The personal object which mostly accompanies it is not to be regarded as in intimate connection with the infinitive, though it is its logical subject. (See the paragraph on the acc. c. inf. page 19.)

f. i. All congregation bade stone them with stones.

4. Mos. 14. 10.

I will bid thee look around thee.

Shakesp. I. Henry III. 2. 7.

Sometimes *bid* occurs also with the prepositional infinitive.

f. i. He bade the chiefs to lead by turns.

Macpherson.

In Modern-English some other verbs of a synonymous meaning, such as: beg, entreat, pray, persuade, command, charge, force

etc. are sometimes used with the simple infinitive, though the prepositional infinitive is more common.

f. i. I pray you tell, sweet maid, how this may be.

Wordsworth.

c) The verbs: hear, list, intend, deign, help etc. occur sometimes with the simple infinitive.

f. i. Have you not heard speak of Mariane?

Shakesp. Measure f. M. 1. 2.

I list not prophesy.

Sh. Wint. Tale. 4. Chorus.

How long within this wood intend you stay.

Sh. Mids. N. Dream 2. 1.

Yet not Lord Cranstone deign'd she greet.

Scott, Last Minst. 5. 25.

Help me scale yon balcony.

Longfellow I. 184.

B. THE PREPOSITIONAL INFINITIVE.

The infinitive with the preposition *to* is employed to abbreviate an objective sentence; this is particularly the case with transitive verbs, with which the infinitive replaces an accusative or a genitive.

We have to enumerate:

- 1) Verbs of imaging and thinking: to think, mean, imagine, fancy, hope, expect, remember, recollect, forget, learn, hope and others.

f. i. He came in two hours after us and expected to be doubly paid.

Edgeworth, Irish travel.

I still had hopes my latest hours to crown.

Ol. Goldsmith, Desert. Vill.

Neither did I expect to come, father.

Dickens, Chimes, p. 13.

Why, you don't mean to say.

Ibid.

Deep in yon cave Honorius long did dwell,

In hope to merit heaven by making earth a hell.

Byron, Ch. Harold I. 20.

How dare thy joints forget to pay their awful duty to our presence?

Shak. Rich. II. 3. 3.

- 2) Verbs of saying: to profess, avow, pretend, swear, advise etc.
 f. i. The hostler advised me to take my passage in a collier.
 Smollet, Rod. Randoms journey.

This not do do,
 So grace and mercy at your most need help you,
 Swear!

Sh. Hamlet I. 5.

You professed to love me.

Bulwer.

Glencoe pretended to fortify his house.

Macaulay, Hist. of Engl. VII. 7.

- 3) Verbs expressing will or design:
 to seek, wish, intend, purpose, attempt, try, dare, venture,
 take upon one's self, resolve, determine, to settle, to chose,
 require, want, threaten, promise, deny, refuse, vouchsafe,
 deign, incline etc.

- f. i. I desired to be informed of his adventures.

Smoll. Rod. Rand. journey.

We are still inclined to make an indulgent allowance
 for the pernicious lessons you received in
 your youth.

Letters of Junius 1769.

I intend to console myself for your censure.

Macaulay, Mdm. d'Arblay.

They devided the spoil, determining to content themselves
 for the present.

Irving, Alhambra, Moors legacy.

I want to speak to you.

Dickens, Pickw. 2. 2.

When once a man is determined to believe, the very ab-
 surdity of the doctrin confirms him in his belief.

Lett. of Jun. 1769.

He would never refuse to assist a neighbour.

Irving, Rip v. Winkle.

- 4) Verbs expressing an affect:
 to like, love, dread, hate, disdain, fear, regret, reckon, flatter,
 to be ashamed, to be delighted etc.

I am delighted to find you so much of my opinion.

Bulwer, Pelham II.

Poor foolish child, how pleased was I, when news of
Nelsons victories came, along the crowded
streets to fly.

Mrs. Opie.

I hate not to be banished.

Sh. Timon of Athens 3. 5.

I love not to be idle.

Ben Johnson.

I was ashamed to look anyone in the face.

Fielding, Man of the hill.

- 5) With the following verbs, expressing a constraint or the exciting to a thing the infinitive marks the object with regard to which the activity of the principal verb takes places: to instigate, compel, constrain, induce, motion, invite, tempt, urge, embolden, encourage, accustom, enable, bring, lead, bind, put, sentence.

- f. i. We were compelled to take up our lodging at a small
hedge-ale-house.

Smollet, Rod. Rand. journ.

I was now obliged to take a middle-course and write
for bread.

Goldsm., Hist. of a phil. vagab.

By circumstance compelled to plunge again in self-
defence amidst the strife of men.

Byron, Lara II. 9.

- 6) Verbs expressing a demand:

to pray, beseech, entreat, charge, implore.

I do beseech your grace now to forgive me frankly.

Sh. Henry VIII. 2. 1.

I implore you to walk out of this house.

Household words.

- 7) Verbs expressing an activity which affects the following object: to begin, cease, continue, use, fail, spare, deserve, neglect, omit, offer.

- f. i. And winking mary-buds begin to ope their golden eyes.

Cymb. II. 3.

He again therefore offered to salute the female part
of the family.

Goldsm., Vicar 5.

The civil war in that wild region after it had ceased to flame had continued during some time to smoulder.

Macaulay, H. of Engl. VII. 1.

Should our first champion fail to crush the race.

Talfourd, Jon. 4. 2.

- 8) To have and to give occur sometimes with the prepositional infinitive for their object; to give is accompanied by the original dative.

f. i. He gave me to understand he had saved money.

Smoll, Rod. Rand.

Give me but to eat, lest I fall down and perish.

Rowe.

What wouldst thou do with me, a feeble girl, who have not long to live?

Longfellow I. 205.

The verbs »to give« and »to have« are often accompanied by an accusative which may be regarded as well to be the logical object of the infinitive. As this accusative stands mostly after the principal verb it seems but natural to refer it to the principal verb and not to the infinitive. That there is in such cases a double relation of the accusative, is to be seen from instances in which the accusative is repeated after the infinitive.

f. i. In the land which I give them to possess it.

Deuteronom. 5. 31.

In Anglo-Saxon, Semi-Saxon and Old-English the construction is that of our days, the infinitive following in most cases the accusative.

f. i. Hie sealdon Ceolvulfe Myrena rice to healdanne.

Saxon, Chron. 874.

Nefdon we noht to drinken.

Lajam. II. 143.

I wote well what I have to do.

Rich. coeur de Lion. 1769.

Accusative after the infinitive:

Ic habbe the to seggenne sume thing.

Luke, 7. 14.

- 9) The infinitive after intransitive verbs is in most instances to be regarded not as the object but as the aim and end of the activity of the principal verb. The infinitive expresses

therefore a tendency, a design, a purpose, and we need only regard here some cases in which a double point of view is allowed.

Verbs expressing an affect, such as to weep, rejoice, blush, shame, suffer, shrink, stare, laugh, smile which else take a prepositional object are construed with the prepositional infinitive, which marks an object accompanying the activity of the principal verb and which logically may be regarded as the motive of the activity of the principal verb.

f. i. Why weep ye not to think upon my wrongs?

Marlowe, *Jew of Malt.* 1. 2.

I rejoice to hear that you have begun.

Chatham, *Lett.* 2.

Polly suffers to see thee in this condition.

Gay.

We may for instance parse the last example thus:

Polly suffers that she sees thee

Polly suffers because she sees thee.

Or: I rejoice that I hear.

I rejoice because I hear.

- 10) A great number of adjectives and participles which express an affect, such as sure, certain, worthy, content, happy, weary, fearless etc. and which mostly govern an object with the preposition *of* are construed with the prepositional infinitive.

f. i. Whose shoes I am not worthy to bear.

St. Matthieu 3. 11.

I am happy to see you.

As bashful yet impatient to be seen.

Shakesp. *Gentlemen of V.*

Fearless to be overmatched by living might.

Milton, *Parad. Lost.* 2. 850.

Grieved to condemn, the muse must still be just.

Byron, p. 316.

- 11) Substantives formed of intransitive verbs take often the prepositional infinitive as an abbreviated sentence.

f. i. Give me your promise to love and to marry her directly.

Sheridan, *Rivals* 21.

I have the wish but want the will to act.

Longfellow 1. 150.

- 12) The prepositional infinitive is also used to abbreviate objective sentences in the form of indirect interrogative sentences.

f. i. The reeling clouds,

Stagger with dizzy poise, as doubting yet
Which master to obey.

Thomsson, seasons, winter 97--99.

His only study was how to render himself amiable in
the eyes of the gothic beauty.

Irving, Alhambra, legend of the Astrologer.

To what friend to direct thee I know not.

S. Walt, Raleigh, letter to his wife. 1603.

Foul weather did not know where to have him.

Dickens, Christ Carol. 1, p. 2.

He sought where to weep.

1. Mos. 43. 30.

The king knows at what time to promise, when to pay.

I. Henry IV. 4. 3.

One hardly knows whether to term it a privilege or a
penalty.

Scott, Qu. Durw. 26.

C. ACCUSATIVE WITH THE INFINITIVE.

In the above mentioned cases sub B the predicative verb of the principal sentence had the infinitive for an object, mostly without any other object to accompany it, and in almost all these cases the subject of the predicative verb was also that of the infinitive. It is however far more frequent that the predicative verb is besides accompanied by an object in the dative or accusative case which depends on it. If the object is the accusative and forms with the infinitive a single notion, in which the accusative is the logical subject of the infinitive, we have the construction of the accusative with the infinitive, the accusativus cum infinitivo of the Latin tongue. But as the predicative verb very often admits of an accusative without the infinitive, the accusative may in many instances be regarded as an object depending directly on the predicative verb, and therefore the relation of the accusative is not always quite clear.

f. i. Command him to yield himself.

Scott, Ivanhoe 12.

In this sentence we are at liberty to regard »him« as depending directly on the verb »command« and the infinitive as in no intimate connection with the accusative, in the sense of

»command him that he yields himself«,

or we may think the infinitive closely connected with the accusative, forming as it were a single notion:

»command, him to yield himself«,

that is to say:

• »command, that he yields himself«.

In the latter case the accusative »him« is only regarded as the logical subject, which is proleptically joined to the predicative verb in the accusative case.

There are however cases in which the relation of the accusative is quite clear and in which it must be regarded as logically separated from the verb of the predicate, though grammatically speaking it stands in the dependency of an object of the predicative verb.

f. i. He commended the bridge to be lowered.

Scott, *Ivanhoe* 39.

It is evident that »the bridge to be lowered« forms a single notion, the accusative with the infinitive *as a whole* serving as the object of the verb »commend«. For the accusative »the bridge«, though in grammatical dependency of the verb of the predicate, cannot be the object of ordering; this must be an activity always.

It is therefore a necessary postulate if we wish to decide whether we have a real construction of the accusative with the infinitive or no, that

a) the accusative should be the logical subject of the infinitive; and that

b) the infinitive with the accusative should form a single notion, a whole, and as such be the logical object of the predicative verb.

The construction of the accusative with the infinitive is to be explained by a prolepsis, a kind of attraction by which the subject of the subordinate sentence (the infinitive) is at it were anticipated in the mind of the speaker and grammatically attracted by and attached to the verb of the governing sentence. The subject of the infinitive loses its subjective nature and is put in the accusative, which depends now in a direct way on the principal sentence.

The Latin language used this construction principally after *verba sentiendi et declarandi*, besides after *verba affectuum* and verbs expressing a will, a wish. But it was only necessary after *verba sentiendi et declarandi*.

f. i. Sentimus calere ignem, nivem esse albam, dulce mel.

Cicero, ad Fines 1. 9.

Lentulus se alterum fore Sullam inter suos gloriatus.

Caesar, B. Civ. 1. 4.

In the Greek language this construction was still more frequent. It was used after *verba declarandi* and those expressing an opinion, a will, a command, a demand etc., even after impersonal verbs.

f. i. πάντες ὁμολογοῦσι τὴν ὁμόνοιαν μέγιστον ἀγαθὸν εἶναι.

ἔλεγον τὴν θύραν κεκλειῆσθαι

διεπράξατο τοὺς ξαντίους φεύγειν.

χρὲ τοῖμ᾽ ἁλεποῖσιν ἐν ἄλγεσι κείμενον ἄνδρα.

Homer.

The Gothic followed upon the whole the Greek use of the accusative c. inf. whilst the Anglo-Saxon seems to prefer the substantive sentence.

Gothic: unte vissedun silban Christu ina vesan.

Luke 4. 41

is in Anglo-Saxon: Hig viston that he Christ vās.

Gothic: Hugjandona in gasinthjam ina visan.

Luke 2. 44.

in Anglo-Saxon translation: Vēndon that he on heora gefêre være.

The construction of the accusative c. inf. is however not altogether unknown to the Anglo-Saxon tongue, but in these cases the simple infinitive is used.

f. i. Him on mōð bearn,
thāt heal-reced hātan volde,
medo-ār̃n micel men gevircean,
thone ylðo bearn aefre gefrunon.

Heyne, Beóvulf. 67.

Properly speaking we have not an accusative with the infinitive after *hātan* und *laetan*, for the two objects depend severally on the verb; but after *gehýran*, *gefrignan* the real accusative c. inf. occurs.

f. i. — gehýrdon,
gryre-leóth galan godes andsacan.

Beóvulf 786.

thâ ie on morgne gefrâgn maeg ôtherne
billes eegum on bonan staelan.

Beóvulf, 2485.

The modern language makes a more ample use of this construction and it is very likely that the influence of the classic and romance languages should have contributed to bring it into vogue.

We shall now examine the different kinds of verbs which are construed with the accusative and the simple or the prepositional infinitive.

AA. ACCUSATIVE WITH THE SIMPLE INFINITIVE.

a) Genuine accusative c. inf.

- 1) Verbs expressing a sensual or a mental perception, such as:
to see, perceive, behold, view, espy, mark, watch, hear, feel,
find, know, discern, observe etc. are found with the acc. c. inf.
f. i. I never saw any thing look so like old fashioned im-
pudence.

Goldsm. She stoops to conquer. 1. 1.

I heard the poor gentleman say his prayers last night.

Sterne, story of Le Fevre.

Thou did'st not view thy Selim fall.

Byron, Bride 2 27.

Do you not hear me speak?

Shakesp. Tempest 2. 1.

In other hands I have known money do good.

Dickens, M. Chuzzlew. 1. 3.

The Ladye mark'd the aids come in.

Scott, L. Minstr. 4. 13.

I never knew a man take his death so patiently.

Marlowe.

In all the examples it is most natural to regard the accusative with the infinitive as the logical object of the governing verb. For the action of perceiving is not directed to two objects (accusative and infinitive) severally, but to a person or a thing which is regarded as standing under the influence of those circumstances which are added to the person or the thing by the infinitive and the other enlargements depending on the latter. The accusative with the

infinitive is therefore a genuine one. — It is however to be remarked that after the above mentioned verbs the prepositional infinitive is also found; with the verb »to know« it is even more frequent than the simple infinitive.

- f. i. Whether I could converse with those who knew me to
have been guilty of so base an action.

Fielding, Man of the hill.

The poems of Homer we know not to transcend the
common limits of human intelligence.

Sam. Johnson, Shakespeare.

- 2) The verb *to have* occurs with an accusative c. inf. In this combination *to have* has various meanings which are based on its original sense of possession.

- f. i. I'll have these players play something like the murder
of my father.

Hamlet. 2. 2.

With the auxiliary »will« *have* takes often the sense of »to wish«. So it is here: »I wish this players to play«. The accusative c. inf. as a whole is the object of the verb and therefore the accusative c. inf. is a genuine one. With »shall« *have* has the sense of »to experience«:

I shall have some virtuous men or other set all my
partridges at liberty.

Fielding.

I hate thee climb that wall by night.

Longfellow I. 133.

With »must« it has often the sense of »to suffer«:

I must not have you henceforth question me

Whether I go, nor reason where-about.

Shakesp. I. Henry IV. 2. 3.

Sometimes to have is also construed with the prepositional infinitive.

- f. i. Do but speak what thou'lt have me to do.

Marlowe, Faustus 2. 4.

- 3) *To make* is also construed with the accusative c. inf.

- f. i. I'll make him find you.

Shakesp. as you like it, 2. 2.

I shall make you laugh anon.

Ben Johnson,

The accusative with the prepositional infinitive is however also found:

Out of the ground made the Lord god to grow every tree.

1. Mos. 2. 9.

This accusative c. inf. is a genuine one, because it forms a single notion which is the object of the verb.

b) Cases in which the accusative and the infinitive depend severally on the verb.

In the following cases we have not to suppose a genuine accusative c. inf., as the two objects are in no intimate connection with each other and form no single notion. Consequently they depend properly speaking severally on the verb. This is especially the case when the verb is accompanied by a personal object.

1) We enumerate *to bid* and other verbs of a similar meaning, such as: to beg, entreat, pray, persuade, charge, force etc.

We have already mentioned that these verbs may also be construed with the simple infinitive, but the prepositional infinitive is more common; *bid* is however almost always used with the simple infinitive.

f. i. I will bid thee look around thee.

Scott, *Ivanhoe* 42.

I charge you both go with me.

Shakesp. II. Henry IV. 5. 4.

And forced them part.

Butler, *Hudibras*.

And so let me entreat you leave the house.

Sh. I. Henry IV. 2. 4.

My question which I pray you listen to.

Bulwer, *Rienzi* 5. 1.

Those gentle hours that plenty bade to bloom.

Oliv. Goldsm. *deserted village*. V. 70.

I bade the song of woe to rise.

Macpherson.

In the two last examples *hours* and *song* are personified.

If however the infinitive stands in the passive voice we have a genuine accusative c. inf.

f. i. Command our present numbers be mustered.

Shak. *Cymbel*. 4. 2.

The object of command is neither *present numbers*, nor *be mustered*; but both considered as a whole, as a single notion serve as the object.

- 2) *let* with the accusative and the infinitive for objects. The accusative c. inf. is no genuine one, as each object depends severally on the verb.

f. i. Let me see.

Goldsmith,

Let them wash their clothes.

2. Mos. 19. 10.

BB. ACCUSATIVE WITH THE PREPOSITIONAL INFINITIVE.

a) Genuine accusat. c. inf.

- 1) Verbs of thinking and such verbs as serve to communicate an action of thinking to another person may be construed with the accusative c. inf. Such verbs are:

α) to think, imagine, fancy, conjecture, suppose, believe, judge, conceive, hold, take, expect.

β) to grant, acknowledge, avow, vouch, portend, pronounce, declare, proclaim, profess, prove, represent, deny.

f. i. I presently recollected the person to have been my fellow-collegiate.

Fielding, *Man of the hill*.

I supposed such banditti to belong to their band.

Scott, *Ivanhoe* 21.

I judged him to be a foreigner.

Bulwer, *Dever*. 5. 2.

We profess ourselves to be slaves of chance.

Sh. *Wint. Tale* 4. 3.

I hold him to be the same.

Scott, *Ivanhoe* 27.

She constantly denied his conspiracy to have been at all known to her.

Hume, *Hist. of Engl.* 42.

The accusative c. inf. after the verbs we have just now enumerated is to be regarded as a genuine one, since the logical object of

the governing verb is not the accusative alone, but the whole idea expressed by the accusative with the infinitive. — In as much as these and synonymous verbs are accompanied by the infinitive of the *verbum substantivum* with a predicative complement, they also allow of the infinitive »to be« to be omitted, and in this case we are to regard the predicative complement as a second accusative of the verb. The sentence:

would ye not think that cunning to be great?

II. Henry VI. 2. 1.

may also run thus:

would ye not think that cunning great?

There is no difference of meaning whatever between these two constructions, but that the accusative c. inf. makes the quality, expressed by the predicative adjective, more prominent and emphasizes it.

- 2) With verbs expressing an action of the will: design, order, demand, permission, or an affect it is often difficult to decide, if the accusative belongs to the infinitive or to the governing verb. Their construction with the accusative c. inf. admits of a double point of view, and we must therefore distinguish different cases. Such verbs are:

to wish, command, order, dictate, ask, require, appoint, want, permit, suffer, pronounce, bear, like, dislike, apprehend etc.

- aa) If the infinitive after verbs of this kind is in the passive voice, the accusative forms with the infinitive a whole, which is the object of the governing verb. In this case we have therefore a genuine accusative c. inf.

f. i. He appointed the battle to be done in his presence.

Scott, *Ivanhoe* 38.

The object of appointing is not the »battle«; but the »performing of the battle in his presence«.

He suffered the absolution to be pronounced over him.

Macaulay, *Hist. of Engl.* II. 7.

In this example too the accusative c. inf. is certainly the object of suffering.

I might command you to be slain for this.

Marlowe, *I. Tomb.* I.

It is quite evident that the person addressed by *you* cannot be the same person to whom the command might be given.

bb) The accusative c. inf. is a genuine one in cases in which another point of view would injure the sense of the sentence.

f. i. Jealousy dislikes the world to know it.

Byron, Don Juan 1. 65.

It would be impossible to take »the world« as the logical object of »dislike«. For if we parse thus: »jealousy dislikes the world, to know it«, the infinitive »to know it« must be taken in the causal-conditional sense of: if the world knows it — it referring to jealousy — and this makes no good sense.

They scarce can bear the morn to break
That melancholy spell,
And longer yet would weep and wake,
He sings so wild and well!

Byron, Bride of Abydos 2. 28.

It is not the morning, which they cannot bear, but the departure in consequence of the day-break. If we take the accusative »the morn« as the logical object of »bear«, we have to regard the infinitive as an abbreviated relative sentence and must parse thus:

They scarce can bear the morn which breaks the spell.
This would certainly be weak and not very appropriate.

b) Cases in which we are not to suppose a real
accusative c. inf.

Doubtful are those cases in which the predicative verb is followed by a personal object. For the most part we may regard the verbs concerned here as governing the object, and therefore the accusative to be separated from the infinitive. For it seems necessary, that the predicative verb should be accompanied by an object, upon which it may directly operate. Such verb are the following:

α) Expressing a demand etc.:

to pray, beseech, entreat, charge, advise, counsel, implore etc.

f. i. I do beseech your grace now to forgive me frankly.

Sh. Henry VIII. 2. 1.

β) Verbs expressing a constraint or another influence:

to instigate, compel, constrain, induce, motion, invite, tempt, wage, incline etc,

f. i. 't is not the first time I have constrained one to call me knave.

Sh. 12 Night 2. 3.

A higher opinion than the first appearance had inclined him to adopt.

Scott, Ivanh. 36.

D. GERUND.

The gerund, which agrees in form with the present participle and a great many abstract substantives in *ing*, differs in some respects from the present participle as well as from the abstract substantive. The present participle, as such being almost destitute of the character of a verb, serves as an adjective, whilst the gerund retains its verbal nature, though in many instances in which it has its substantive power it is difficult to say, if it is to be regarded as an abstract substantive or as a gerund. On the other hand the gerund comes very near to the participle, and it is often doubtful how it is to be taken. This double nature of a substantive and of a verb, which undoubtedly is a characteristic of the gerund, is founded in the origin of this form of the verb. As we have already seen in a preceding chapter, (see page 8 ff.) the English gerund is to be derived in the first place from an Anglo-Saxon verbal-substantive, and secondly from the prepositional infinitive (the Anglo-Saxon gerund). — The Anglo-Saxon verbal-substantive terminating in *ung* is sometimes found with a second form in *ing*. As a real substantive it was used with prepositions and had the government of a noun. The Anglo-Saxon prepositional infinitive (gerund) taking the same termination *ing* and retaining its verbal government, had now the same form as the original verbal-substantive. It is therefore very natural, that the prepositional infinitive was used with prepositions and yet retained its government like a real verb, whilst the verbal-substantive was confounded with it by accepting too of the government of the verb. Thus participating both of the functions of a verbal-substantive and of a verb, the English gerund may be regarded as an amalgamation of the Anglo-Saxon verbal-substantive and of the prepositional infinitive.

The present participle, which agrees in form with the English gerund, has no doubt contributed to this amalgamation. It began

as early as in the 14th century, when verbal-substantives were employed with the government of a verb.

The verbal form in *ing* is to be regarded as a gerund in all those cases in which it does not permit of being referred to a substantive notion, as the attributive adjective of the latter, and in which an oblique case follows it, that has the gerund for its governing verb.

f. i. You know I don't mind taking liberties with you.
Oxenford.

But we prefer taking a great view of the subject.
Scott, Last Minstr. 1. 56.

As we have only to speak here of the use of the gerund in as much as it serves to abbreviate an objective sentence, we shall now examine the different cases in which it is used as an object.

1) The gerund serves as a means of abbreviating objective sentences after transitive verbs.

f. i. I could not help wishing there should be something.
Dickens, Chimes, p. 18.

I cannot help entertaining a high opinion of his guest.
Sterne, Story of Le Fevre.

This gentleman proposed our immediately drinking a bottle together.

Fielding, Man of the hill.

I despaired at first of being able to bring back to your honour a kind of intelligence.
Sterne, le Fevre.

The gerund may in this case be accompanied by the definite article, or a possessive pronoun.

f. i. I will attempt the doing it.
Sh. Othello 3. 4.

I forgive his loving you.

Though modern grammarians do not approve of this latter construction, but regard a gerund with the definite article or a possessive pronoun as a true substantive and therefore only permitting of the government of a substantive, yet modern usage does not follow this rule.

2) The gerund as an object is used with preference after verbs denoting commencing ending, affect etc.

- α) Expressing commencing, ending:
to commence, end, begin, continue, forbear, cease, leave, finish etc.
- β) Expressing opinion:
to prefer, find, propose, refuse, resist etc.
- γ) Expressing design:
to design, intend, purpose etc.
- δ) Expressing affect:
to dread, fear, hate, regret, repent, detest etc.

It is however not to be forgotten, that also the infinitive is found with these verbs. — The cases in which both the infinitive and the gerund after a transitive verb may replace an objective case admit of different points of view. We may regard the verb in *ing* as a present participle or as a real gerund.

- f. i. He again seated himself and began weaving the flowers into one of those garlands.

Bulwer, Rienzi 1. 1.

began weaving = began to weave = began that he weaved. Parsed thus, weaving is the gerund and marks the effected object (efficitres Object) which is the result of the activity of the verb »began«. On the other hand »weaving« may be regarded as the participle present serving as an adjective, which by a kind of attraction is referred to the subject »He«. The sense then would be: He, weaving the flowers, began. It seems not very appropriate to think *weaving* the participle present, as the verb »began« has its logical object in *weaving*, which, as we have seen, may be the result of the activity. It is the same with the following example:

I do enjoy putting down these irrisistibles.

Here »putting down« is the logical object which is enjoyed; the object is a suffering object, which is affected by the activity of the verb (afficitres Object). The reason why we cannot very well regard »putting down« as a participle is obvious, for »I putting down — enjoy« — gives no good sense.

It is quite different in other cases:

- f. i. She ended weeping and her lowly plight.

Milton, Par. lost 10. 937.

(Speech of Eve to Adam finished.)

Here »weeping« represents no object, for weeping is neither the result of the activity »to end« nor does the activity affect the action of weeping. Weeping marks only a circumstance, and is to be referred to the subject »she«. The sense of the whole can be no other than: She weeping ended — that is to say: She ended and wept at the end. In this case »weeping« is no doubt a participle belonging to the subject as its attributive complement. Besides it would be impossible to say: She ended to weep, unless we take *to end* in the sense of *to finish*.

In the following examples we may very well regard the forms in *ing* as gerunds, for all of them are real objects and may be replaced by the infinitive.

f. i. When he had left speaking.

St. Luke 5. 4.

With tears that ceased not flowing.

Milton, Par. lost 10. 910.

If in these eyes there lurk a tear

't will flow and cease to burn my brain.

Byron, Hebr. Melodies.

Be still sad heart, and cease repining.

Longfellow I. 108.

We may therefore establish as a general rule, that a form in *ing* is to be regarded as a gerund and not as a participle, whenever it is the logical object of the governing verb.

This use of the gerund is certainly founded in the Anglo-Saxon use of the present participle, which was employed like a modern gerund, but with reference to the subject of the governing sentence.

f. i. Thâ se Haelend thys geendude hys twelf leorning-cnyhtum bebeódende.

St. Matthieu 11. 1.

Gothic: Usfullida Jesus anabiudands thaim tvalif siponjam seinaim.

This use of the present participle was extended to other verbs, with which it seems not possible to refer the following participle to the subject.

f. i. Hî ondrêdan hine âcsigende.

St. Marc 9. 32.

»They asking him feared« would make no sense, because the activity of the participle is not realised and cannot therefore be referred to the subject. The Greek and Gothic languages seem to have been aware of this difficulty and employ therefore the infinitive.

Greek: *ἐποβοῦντο αὐτὸν ἐπερωτῆσαι.*

Marc. 9. 32.

Gothic: *ohtedun ina fraihnan.*

Ibid.

Nevertheless the Anglo-Saxon employed the participle after the analogy of other verbs, as to end, begin, after which the use of the participle may be justified with regard to a logical point of view. We are therefore inclined to believe, that already in Anglo-Saxon the relation of this participle to the subject began to be felt no longer, and that it was thus possible, that the participle present in this construction gradually lost its attributive power and became at last the modern gerund. We cannot therefore approve of Mr. Mätzner's opinion *) who regards the form in *ing* after verbs, as to end, begin, cease, enjoy, as a participle whilst after transitive verbs, as to respect, deny etc. the form in *ing* is regarded by him as a gerund. We believe that the participle nature of the verbs after *end*, *begin* is no more felt and that nobody thinks of referring these forms to the subject, but that they are joined to the principal verb as an object, representing an abbreviated objective sentence in the form of a substantive and with the power of a verb, in short as a real gerund.

- 3) The gerund serving as an object or at least as an objective enlargement is accompanied by all kinds of prepositions, but seldom used with the preposition *to*. In most cases the gerund may be replaced by the infinitive.

f. i. It is your interest to prevent one of the three estates from encroaching upon the province of the other.

Lett. of Junius.

Noise, hurry etc. prevent the spirits from preying on themselves.

Fielding, Man of the hill.

I have not the pleasure of knowing the gentleman who is your tutor.

Chatham, Lett. 3.

*) See Mätzner, Engl. Grammatik, II. 64.

»I have not the pleasure to know« would be as good.
I can't think of allowing you.

Taylor, Masks 2. 2.

She was well used to being alone.

Dickens, M. Chuzzlew 1. 3.

I hope your ladyship can't tax me with ever betraying
the secrets of the family.

Fielding, J. Andr. 1. 5.

Here we have still to discuss some cases in which the prepositional gerund is accompanied by adnominal enlargements.

f. i. Who gave you knowledge of your wife's being there?

Ben Jons. Every man in his humour. 5. 1.

I don't wonder at people's giving him to me for a lover.

Sheridan, School f. Scand. 1. 1.

There's not an instance of a man's exerting himself
ever with praise and virtue in the dangers
of his country.

Middleton, Cicero.

In all these cases the form in *ing* is a real gerund, replacing an objective sentence, for it has the government of a substantive and participates of the nature of the verb. But there are cases in which it is not quite clear how to take the form in *ing*.

f. i. Trusting to the certainty of the old man interrupting
him before he should utter a word.

Dickens, M. Chuzzlew 1. 3.

First you hear the bells of the leading mules, breaking,
with their simple melody, the stillness of the
muleteer admonishing some tardy or wonder-
ing animal.

Irving, Alhambra, Journey p. 7.

I cannot accept the notion of schoollife affecting the
poet to this extent.

Lewis 9. I. 34.

You know that arose from the fear of my cousin hear-
ing of these matters.

Oxenford, Twice killed 1. 2.

If in these examples the form in *ing*, as it is generally the case, is considered to be a participle, it must be taken in the sense of an abbreviated relative sentence referring to the preceeding

genitive, which depends on a substantive. We should then have to parse thus:

- 1) Trusting to the certainty of the old man, who might interrupt him.
- 2) Breaking the stillness of the muleteer, who admonishes the tardy animal.
- 3) Notion of schoollife, which affects the poet to this extent.
- 4) Arose from the fear of my cousin, who might hear of these matters.

This would make a sense in the second, and in the fourth example in which we had then to take the genitive »of the muleteer« as a subjective, the genitive »of my cousin« as an objective one. It is however to be observed that the epithet »still« applied to a muleteer who admonishes tardy cattle, is not very appropriate, whilst it is very well to be applied to the action of admonishing. It is the same with the notion *fear*. To fear the cousin, because he might hear of a thing, is certainly not very natural; but the action of fearing referred to the gerund »hearing« makes a good sense. — As to the first example the genitive »of the old man« could be no other than a subjective genitive, and this gives no sense at all. It is the same with the third example; for »notion (opinion) of schoollife, which affects« makes also no sense whatever.

It is therefore impossible to regard the form in *ing* in all these cases as a participle, and as besides in most instances the sense of the whole idea, which is expressed, is injured, we must look for another explanation.

To regard the substantive to which the form in *ing* refers as an unmarked genitive, and the inflexion of the genitive *s* as simply omitted and to be supplied in the mind of the speaker, would be an explanation, just as easy as it is improbable and in my opinion impossible. Let us examine the fourth example:

Arose from the fear of [my cousin hearing] of these matters.

The action of fear does not only extend to the object »my cousin«, but the notion expressed by »my cousin hearing«. The preposition *of*, which indicates the relation between the substantive *fear* and the following substantive notion, refers therefore to the notion »my cousin hearing« as a whole. If we now take the form in *ing*, hearing, as a gerund, we may regard the preceeding substantive »my cousin«, which ought to be in grammatical dependency of the

gerund (my cousin's hearing), as being attracted by and joined to the preceeding preposition. By this attraction the original genitive »my cousin's« becomes an accusative, which, together with the gerund, forms a construction — perfectly analogous to the construction of the accusative with the infinitive — which as a whole, as a single notion depends on the preceeding preposition.

This construction of an »accusative with a gerund« is still more clear in cases in which the gerund depends on a transitive verb.

f. i. To prevent the ladies leaving us, I generally ordered the table to be removed.

Goldsmith, Vicar 2.

There, Sir, pardon me blushing if it says anything soft.
Oxenford, Twice killed.

The logical object of the verbs *to prevent* and *to pardon* are the gerunds *leaving* and *blushing* together with the accusatives *ladies* and *me*, which might also be depending on the gerund, the former by taking a genitive inflexion, the latter by taking the form of a possessive pronoun:

»the ladies' leaving us« and »my blushing«

The transitive verbs *prevent* and *pardon* attract an accusative from the genitive and the possessive pronoun (which represents a genitive), and thus the accusative forms, together with the gerund, a single notion, which is the logical object of the verb.

To regard these forms in *ing* as participles with reference to the preceeding accusative, in the sense of a relative or any other accessory sentence, is in my opinion not very appropriate.



